

# SUPPLEMENT.

# The Mining Journal,

## RAILWAY AND COMMERCIAL GAZETTE:

FORMING A COMPLETE RECORD OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF ALL PUBLIC COMPANIES.

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### Original Correspondence.

#### PATENT FURNACES IN SCOTLAND.

While the great ironmasters of Philadelphia, U.S., and Staffordshire, are investigating the merits of Danks's patent rotary-furnace, the Scotch ironmasters are still conducting experiments with other furnaces, more or less generally known, that have been before the world for a longer period. Among these we may specially mention the Watson furnace, the Swedish gas furnace, and the Gorman heat-restoring gas furnace. Siemens's regenerative furnaces are not forgotten, but their distinctive merits and peculiarities are so well understood that it would be the height of superfluity to refer to them further than to remark, *en passant*, that they have recently been adopted on rather an extensive scale at the Blochairn Ironworks, the largest establishment of its kind in Scotland, while the Parkhead Works, situated about two miles from Glasgow, has also resolved upon their introduction. In reference to the Gorman furnace, about which is known, and in which several important improvements have recently been effected, including adaptations to puddling and heating iron, some information may be desiderated. This furnace has recently been subjected to severe crucible tests, in which it has come off with flying colours; and at one of the largest ironworks in the neighbourhood of Coatbridge experiments are still being carried out, in order to test its claims to superiority over all other furnaces in the market.

Mr. Gorman's heat-restoring gas furnace was first constructed at the Govan Bar-Iron Works, in the year 1864, since which time it has received the patentee's constant attention. In developing his patent, Mr. Gorman's great aim was to economise fuel by restoring part of the heat which escapes in ordinary furnaces. In practice it was found that the arrangements necessary for this purpose were also admirably adapted for consuming the volatile gases of coal, thereby increasing economy and preventing smoke. As is well known, the coke, or solid part of the coal, is completely burnt on the grate of the ordinary furnace, and the combustion of the gaseous part of the coal thus prevented. In the heat-restoring gas furnace, however, the solid part of the coal is converted into carbonic oxide gas, which is combustible, and which along with the coal is burnt with a further supply of air in the part of the furnace where the heat is wanted. The gas furnace has been successfully applied in re-heating for plate and bar mills, in puddling, in welding scrap, and for all shipbuilding purposes. So general has its use become in the neighbourhood of Glasgow that we find it used for boiler-makers, bridge-builders, and rivet and nail makers, while it is also successfully applied by the Coatbridge Tin-Plate Company for enamelling and annealing.

The use of the Gorman furnace being so general it must, one would think, have very conspicuous and definite advantages over the ordinary reverberatory furnace. The principle of action, to begin with, is entirely different. It is heated by combustible gases, which may be supplied from any suitable source. The gas used for illuminating stoves, or the gases escaping from blast-furnaces, will answer the purpose admirably. It is not essential that the gas should be produced in connection with the furnace, although hitherto it has been produced in the apparatus attached to the ordinary coal or slack producer in the neighbourhood of Glasgow. The gas producer occupies the same place as the grate-room in ordinary furnaces, the only difference being that it is deeper, to allow at all times a thickness of over 2 ft. of fuel on the grate-bars. This provision is necessary to prevent carbonic acid from rising among the combustible gases. The proper working of the producer has hitherto been either little understood or greatly neglected, and hence a great impediment has been thrown in the way of the legitimate results which, under proper management, the furnace will unfailingly yield. The conditions laid down by the patentee are—keep the bars clean, taking out clinkers, but no coke or charred coal that can be avoided; fire often, and keep the fuel up level with the firing door, or higher, at all times, but do not put too much on at a time.

To transfer the heat from the waste products leaving the furnace to the air entering the furnace for combustion, an apparatus called a heat-restorer is employed. This instrument consists of two tubes, the inlet of one tube adjoining the outlet of the other. The tubes are open at both ends, and they are so constructed that if hot water be poured in one tube, and cold water in the other, the hot water will run out cold, and the cold water will leave the instrument heated very nearly to the temperature of water which was poured in hot. In the same manner the restorer transfers the waste heat to the air for combustion. The restorer is a chamber placed usually under the ground line, and into which is placed a number of fire-clay pipes, open at both ends. At each end of the pipes a wall runs up, and divides the chamber into three compartments. The flame or waste heat from the furnace passes downwards through the centre compartment, impinging on the outside of the tubes placed therein; and the air for combustion, entering the end space at the bottom, passes through the pipes to the other end, from which it rises to a higher series of tubes, and re-crosses until it arrives at the top of the chamber. An upward current of air thus meets a downward current of heated gases, with only the thickness of the fire-clay tube between them, the current of air inside preventing the destruction of the tube by the high temperature outside.

So much for the construction and *modus operandi* of the Gorman furnace. The next and most important consideration relates to the results obtained in actual practice. As we have already indicated, many experiments have been and are now being carried out with the view of testing its merits. Recently the Mossend Iron Company carried out a series of trials in order to compare the waste of iron in the heat-restoring gas furnace with that of the ordinary furnace. The results were as follows:—Seven heats were charged in succession in the common furnace, No. 5. The iron was in piles for large angle-bars, and the weight delivered was 211 cwt. 3 qrs. 7 lbs., of which there were returned 190 cwt. 3 qrs., representing a loss of 21 cwt. 0 qrs. 7 lbs. The yield was, therefore, 22 cwt. 2 qrs. 10 lbs., or a waste of 2 cwt. 2 qrs. 10 lbs. in producing a ton of angle-bars. There was charged at the same time, and of the same weight and quality of iron for the same order, seven heats in succession into No. 7 gas furnace. Delivered 212 cwt. 0 qrs. 7 lbs.; returned, 195 cwt. 2 qrs. 0 lbs.; loss, 16 cwt. 2 qrs. 7 lbs.; the yield being, therefore, 21 cwt. 2 qrs. 21 lbs., or a loss of 1 cwt. 2 qrs. 21 lbs. in producing a ton of angle-bars, showing a saving in iron by the gas furnace of 3 qrs.

19 lbs. per ton of iron produced, including croppings. The next experiments to which we shall refer were made at the works of Messrs. Colville and Gray, Coatbridge, who weighed the materials during a week's work of the gas furnace and two common furnaces, the results being as follows:—

	Charges of puddled bars.	Finished iron and croppings.	Puddled bars.
Common furnace, each.....Tons	58 2 0 14	53 5 0 14	1 1 3 25
Gas furnace, each.....Tons	55 10 2 14	52 10 3 14	1 1 0 17

Saving per ton of iron.....0 0 8 8  
Coal—Old furnaces, each.....Tons 25 17 0 0.....per ton 0 9 2 23  
Gas furnace, each.....Tons 12 7 0 0.....per ton 0 4 2 26

Estimating the above yields in finished iron, without cropping, and allowing 5 tons charged to finish 4 tons, we have the following result:—

Common furnace.....Tons	1 1 3 25	5-4=	1 7 1 24
Gas furnace.....Tons	1 1 0 17	5-4=	1 6 1 21

Saving on finished iron per ton.....0 1 0 3  
The following statement of two weeks' work of four of Gorman's heat-restoring gas furnaces, at the works of Messrs. Gray and Wylie, Clifton Ironworks, Coatbridge—employing heating iron for rolling-mills—will still further illustrate the results attainable by this furnace:—

SIXTEEN INCH MERCHANT MILL.  
1871—April 3—Day shift.....Tons 15 12 2 0  
" 3—Night shift.....Tons 11 3 2 0  
" 4—Day shift.....Tons 14 13 3 14  
" 4—Night shift.....Tons 15 11 0 14  
" 5—Day shift.....Tons 14 7 3 21  
" 5—Night shift.....Tons 14 12 2 0  
" 6—Day shift.....Tons 12 19 3 21  
" 6—Night shift.....Tons 15 7 3 7  
" 7—Day shift.....Tons 12 6 1 0  
" 7—Night shift.....Tons 13 12 0 0  
" 8—Day shift.....Tons 12 17 0 14  
First week.....Tons 153 4 0 7  
1871—April 10—Day shift.....Tons 17 3 1 14  
" 10—Night shift.....Tons 12 18 3 0  
" 11—Day shift.....Tons 12 13 0 0  
" 11—Night shift.....Tons 11 11 1 21  
" 12—Day shift.....Tons 16 11 1 21  
" 12—Night shift.....Tons 15 3 3 7  
" 13—Day shift.....Tons 13 18 1 7  
" 13—Night shift.....Tons 11 16 2 21  
" 14—Day shift.....Tons 14 10 1 21  
" 14—Night shift.....Tons 13 17 0 7  
" 15—Day shift.....Tons 18 16 2 14  
Second week.....Tons 184 11 0 21  
First week.....Tons 153 4 0 7  
Second week.....Tons 184 11 0 21  
Total.....Tons 337 15 1 0

making a total for 22 shifts from two furnaces, of, as near as may be, 14 tons per shift:—

EIGHT INCH GUIDE MILL.  
1871—April 3—Night shift.....Tons 10 9 3 14  
" 4—Day shift.....Tons 12 1 3 14  
" 4—Night shift.....Tons 13 7 0 0  
" 5—Day shift.....Tons 11 9 0 7  
" 5—Night shift.....Tons 13 11 0 0  
" 6—Day shift.....Tons 10 19 0 7  
" 6—Night shift.....Tons 12 18 0 4  
" 7—Day shift.....Tons 10 16 2 7  
" 7—Night shift.....Tons 14 0 3 21  
" 8—Day shift.....Tons 9 1 0 21  
First week.....Tons 117 15 1 7  
1871—April 10—Night shift.....Tons 12 2 0 21  
" 11—Day shift.....Tons 6 19 3 0  
" 11—Night shift.....Tons 10 7 0 7  
" 12—Day shift.....Tons 11 15 1 0  
" 12—Night shift.....Tons 10 7 3 21  
" 13—Day shift.....Tons 11 11 1 0  
" 13—Night shift.....Tons 11 18 3 7  
" 14—Day shift.....Tons 12 8 3 21  
" 14—Night shift.....Tons 9 19 1 0  
" 15—Day shift.....Tons 12 13 1 0  
Second week.....Tons 109 18 3 7  
First week.....Tons 117 15 1 7  
Second week.....Tons 109 18 3 7

The total from the two furnaces for 20 shifts being 11 tons 7 cwt. 2 qrs. 23 lbs. per shift.  
It may be desirable to explain, in reference to the above statement, that the iron delivered for the—

Sixteen inch mill on the night shift, April 12, was.....Tons	19 9 2 4
The iron returned, including croppings.....Tons	18 6 0 21
Loss in heating.....Tons	1 3 2 11
Finished iron.....Tons	15 3 3 7
Croppings.....Tons	3 2 1 14
The coal or tripling used was.....Tons	3 4 0 0
So that the puddle bar required to produce a ton of rolled iron is.....Tons	0 21 1 4
The coal (tripling) necessary to heat a ton of iron.....Tons	0 3 1 27
The finished iron from 16 inch mill was.....Tons	8 7 15 1 0
Iron charged cold into the furnace.....Tons	8 25 0 0
The finished iron per shift averaged.....Tons	14 0 0 0
Ditto ditto including croppings.....Tons	16 9 0 0
Iron charged cold, per shift.....Tons	18 0 0 0

Of the various modifications of this furnace introduced by Mr. Gorman we cannot now speak. We may, however, remark that he has brought out a new form of puddling furnace, which is being successfully worked at the Clydesdale Ironworks, Holytown, and other places in the West of Scotland. He is also engaged at the present time in applying his principle to smelting, and to smiths' and founders' furnaces.

IMPROVEMENTS IN TREATING METALLIC ORES.—The objects of the invention of Messrs. HARGREAVES and ROBINSON, of Widnes, are to completely oxidise or decompose sulphides and to utilise the greatest possible quantity of sulphur contained in metallic ores, and to convert the oxides and sulphides of certain of the metals contained in the said ores, such as copper, zinc, tin, lead, silver, and gold, into chlorides, or to render them otherwise available by the action thereupon of chlorine or hydrochloric acid gases at elevated temperatures. Pyrites is referred to as the metallic ore to be operated upon; others are suitable. Burnt and spent pyrites are referred to under the second part; other metallic oxides are suitable. Under the first part the pyrites is maintained at a high temperature in tall vertical or other retorts or burners until the whole of the sulphur is oxidised. The pyrites is burnt in series or sets of retorts or burners, so arranged and connected that each retort or burner in its turn becomes the first, intermediate, and last of the series as regards the passage of the air and gases there through. The retorts or burners consist of vertical, circular, elliptical, or square

tubes, preferably heated on the outside. Under the second part of the invention the spent pyrites is maintained at a suitable temperature—say, from 700° to 900° Fahr.—in the above or any convenient vessel. In a current of chlorine or hydrochloric acid gas, or vapour, passed through, over, or amongst the mass.

#### THE MINES INSPECTION AMENDMENT ACT—No. IV.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

SIR,—The Home Secretary has lost little time in introducing his Mines Inspection Amendment Bill, read the first time on the 12th, and he will, I trust, lose none in getting it passed into law; for though far from doing all that might be done and ought to be done for the protection of pitmen in their hazardous employment, it contains many valuable provisions, and others will, I hope, be introduced during the progress of the measure through Parliament.

The Bill is not confined, as the present Act is, to coal mines and iron mines in the coal measures, but applies also to stratified iron mines, and to shale and fire-clay mines. It contains provisions for the employment and education of young children similar to those of the Factory Acts. As a general rule, payment for coal got is to be by weight, and by the imperial ton; when the change will be exceptionally inconvenient or costly, the Secretary of State, on a special report after enquiry, may allow exceptions. An existing Act, passed shortly after the disaster of the Borradon Mine, provides that from every mine there shall be at least two shafts or modes of exit: the present Bill provides that this shall be a real and not an illusory precaution. Mr. Secretary Bruce noticed the common error of those who form their opinions of the dangers of mining from what is most frequently reported—viz., that explosions are the accidents most destructive of life. In one year indeed, 1866, 651 deaths out of a total of 1484 were so caused, but the average proportion is little more than one-fifth, having been in twenty years 4711 out of 20,653 total deaths by coal mine accidents, or 23.6 per cent.; in 1870 they were 18.5 per cent. The average loss of 235 lives a year from this cause, most of which are needlessly sacrificed by carelessness or cupidity, is a disgrace to our country, which the present Bill, unless amended, will partially, but only partially, remove.

It would, however, be unjust to deny that important amendments of the law are proposed in the Bill. It contains the important provision that for every mine there shall be a registered manager, and that every manager not previously so employed shall undergo an examination of a strictly practical character; those not examined to give proof of sobriety, ability, and general good conduct. The proof that such duties have been properly performed ought to be evidence of ability to perform them. This certificate of competency the manager may lose wholly, or for a time, if on enquiry by competent persons he be found to have neglected his duty, but the Bill ought, and I hope will, provide that such enquiry be made after every accident causing loss of life, apparently arising from bad management. If it have so arisen, the manager should be censured or punished, if the suspicion be erroneous, he should be honourably acquitted; but every case of even suspected neglect, involving loss of life, should be followed by a strict and impartial investigation.

As before stated, less than a fourth of the lives lost are destroyed by explosions, half of the remainder, or, on the average, 395 a year, being lost by falls of roof or of coal. The accidents by which more than one life is thus lost, though they cannot be entirely avoided, will be very considerably diminished in frequency, if the common-sense practice long followed in the better managed mines of Durham, Northumberland and Scotland were rendered universal, as is proposed in the Bill. In the North it is, and long has been, the common practice for the mine owners to take care that the workings are kept in a proper state of stability. They employ men to fix the props and sprags needed to support the roof and coal, and though, like all other human work, this is done imperfectly, it is done far less imperfectly than when done by the pitmen themselves, who are both less skilful and less careful than those specially employed for work requiring special skill and care. Moreover pitmen, who are paid for the coal they get but not for time otherwise occupied, are apt to begrudge work for which they are not paid, even if needed for their own safety. They take good care, however, to complain if others employed to do what is needed for their safety neglect it, the effect being that the work is much better done and more strictly looked after, whereby accidents of this class, which are most destructive of all, are materially diminished. This simple change of law, by compelling all coalowners to do what the most skilful and successful have long done of their own accord, will certainly save many, not improbably 200, lives a year, and perhaps a thousand broken limbs, and other serious though not fatal injuries.

Next come restrictions upon the use, or rather the gross abuse, of gunpowder. Everybody acknowledges that no naked light should be used in the neighbourhood of explosive gas, and all safety-lamps should be locked so that they cannot be opened except where it is safe to open them, and yet the very same persons who punish, and justly punish, a pitman for smoking his pipe in a fiery mine (thereby endangering the lives of others), will knowingly permit blasting by powder in a similar mine, although such blasting is not merely as dangerous as a lighted pipe, but far more dangerous, for it may not only ignite gas in its immediate neighbourhood, but cause it to be ignited at a distance by driving it against an imperfectly protected light. The Bill very properly provides that the use of gunpowder shall be limited to that used in cartridges, and prohibited entirely in mines in which safety-lamps are directed to be used.

A general rule of the existing Act imposes upon the owner and manager the duty of having the mine inspected as to the efficiency of its ventilation every day before the work begins. In well managed mines this very important precaution is carefully observed, with the effect of nearly entirely avoiding in them those large explosions by which many are killed at once, which rarely occur unless from the gradual accumulation of gas. It is proposed to add to this a direction that whenever danger becomes apparent the men shall be withdrawn from the mine; and it is further provided that they may from time to time, at their own cost, employ one or more of the pitmen, accompanied by anyone the owner shall appoint, to examine the mine and satisfy themselves as to its safety. Mr. Secretary Bruce informs us that some owners pay men to perform this important service, who are rewarded, instead of being blamed, if they detect any source of danger. Why should not all do so?

The service is so important, and it would be of such advantage to the community at large that it shall be well and universally per-



formed, that it is a pity that it should be left contingent upon the men being wise enough and prudent enough to be willing to pay for its performance. It signifies little who pays for it directly, for if the charge be made universal it will be an addition to the cost of the coal got, and be paid indirectly by the consumer, who will neither feel it or complain of it if he did. The cost of the precaution would be perfectly insignificant compared with its value. Are human lives worth nothing? Any perceptible diminution in the 1033 lives-a-year now lost in coal mines would well repay in mere money value many times the cost of so evidently valuable a precaution by which many lives would be saved.

The next alteration of the law is the omission of the words "under ordinary circumstances" in the general rule directing that the working places of all mines shall be so ventilated by the owner as to be safe. Those unfortunate words have sheltered many owners guilty of neglecting a precaution essential to the safety of hundreds from just responsibility. It is clear that the working places should always be safe while men are working in them, and that the owner should be responsible for keeping them safe, or if from any temporary cause the fire-damp shall collect faster than the ventilation can carry it off, or dilute it, the men should be withdrawn from danger. It is not enough to enact that this shall be done, it must be made the direct and immediate self-interest of the owners that it shall never be neglected.

PHILO.

## THE RATING OF COAL MINES.

SIR,—I have seen and read with great pleasure many letters published in the Journal on this subject, and now Parliament is again at work I hope your subscribers will again do their best to invite its attention to our sad position. Our Assessment Committee is principally composed of dependent men, such as tenant farmers, publicans, shopkeepers, brickmakers, or agents, &c., and not men altogether independent and out of business, consequently there is a reason why the law of valuing mines and rating them on their value according to Bill is not put into force. All that is wanted is a short Bill, stating that all mines shall be valued once a year (and not left to the option of the committee) by a competent mining man, and the rate made on his valuation, leaving it in the power of persons, as now, to appeal. A bad feeling is growing up amongst us, which has been, I am sorry to say, increasing in intensity, and will soon come to an outburst unless our Government sets the matter at rest. Hitherto the greatest moderation and consideration have been shown by the ratepayers, who have complained of a want of justice, but unless something is done a great and terrible outburst and resistance to the payment of rates at all will take place. I trusting to our Government seeing the importance of this little matter.

INHABITANT.

Stourbridge, Feb. 14.

## THE RATING OF COAL MINES.

SIR,—I see in the programme of our Government for this session a Bill is to be brought forward under the above head, and as we poor people in the Stourbridge Union have for years been subjected to unjust rating of mines, and not according to law, it is only natural for us to ask if the Bill now contemplated by the Government is intended to bring about a better state of things than has prevailed, and does prevail, in this Union, and no doubt elsewhere? We are told that the law is clear—that all property shall be rated on what it is worth to rent from year to year—i.e., on a valuation, or on the rent paid for it, as the Assessment Committee may resolve, as our farms and shops, &c., are. But what are we to do, when the Assessment Committee chooses to enter into a bargain with the colliery owners to rate them at less than half the value of the mines to rent? Our answer is that, until Assessment Committees are bound by law to employ a fit and competent person to value and rate the mines at least once a year we poor ratepayers may feel sure there is no hope for us. Our Assessment Committee are now rating our mines on a scale which is considered less than half their value. This bargain between the Assessment Committee and coalowners was entered into some year or two ago, after a great public demonstration, which had the effect of reducing our rates from 1s. 8d. to 1s. By some this bargain is called the banditti bargain, by others unjust compromise, by others to skin the poor alive to make shoes for the rich bargain; and it is openly said that great distrust prevails, without hope for the future unless our Government make the law, as before stated, so clear that the Assessment Committee shall have no choice in bargain-making of the unsatisfactory character above referred to; but let it be their unalterable duties to have the mines valued once a year for rating (mines being more changeable than other property). And let the rate be made on the declared value of such person, and let the valuation be for mines alone, and not bundled up with damaged land and other things, so as to render it unintelligible.

It is also important that each colliery owner shall be bound by law to make a full return of all the coal he raises, and the selling price. We are now told that no one has a right to ask to see the return of a coalmaster as to the quantity of coal raised, &c.; if it be so it is unjust to us as free ratepayers, so long as all particulars on which I am rated are open to all, and the particulars on which my next-door neighbour's rate is made to be kept a perfect secret. Let the lease of all our rates be kept open, so that we may all be kept honest by the eye of the public being upon us; or let all be secret, and each man do as best he can, or will—"what is good for each is good for all." Fair play is all that we ratepayers ask for. We have raised our long and loud cries during the last two years before the Government, and as yet we have had no help; and, we ask, shall this inglorious, unrighteous state of things continue? God forbid.

Pensnett, Feb. 13.

X. Y. Z.

## MINERAL INDUSTRY OF SILESIA.

SIR,—After the last war with France a great many new companies have been formed in Breslau, principally with Silesian capital, and all of them, with the exception of one or two, are thriving. The trade has so increased that new railways have become a necessity, some are already commenced, others only yet projected; the want of railway wagons, which at times has been very severely felt here, will also soon be remedied by the newly-established Breslau Railway Wagon Company, which already has delivered a great number of wagons. Besides the railways, it is also intended to make the river navigation more available, for which purpose a river steam navigation company is now being formed, which will be able to carry the staple articles, as coal, iron, oil, spirits, &c., to Stettin, Berlin, &c., at very low rates.

Amongst the new companies, besides the four banks, which although established only about six months ago, to-day are quoted as follows:—Breslauer Wechselbank, 160; Breslauer Disconts Bank, 145; Breslauer Maklerbank, 145; Breslauer Makler Vereinsbank, 124;—the principal and most promising enterprise, the Vereinigte Laura and Konigsbutter, capital 6,000,000 thalers. The property consists principally of two colossal ironworks and coal and iron mines. The two ironworks are called Laurahutte and Konigsbutter, the first formerly the property of Count Henckel, of Donnersmarck, the latter until last year the property of the Government, but then bought also by the Count Henckel, of Donnersmarck, who made the highest bid when the Government put it up for sale by auction. These two works, with the coal and iron mines of Count Henckel, form now the property of the company; all the works of the company are in excellent condition, and the output of the coals, as well as the production of pig and rolled iron, are on the increase.

During the first half-year of the company's existence, which dates from July 2, 1872, there have been produced—coal, 5,740,000 cwt.; pig-iron, 862,725 cwt.; rails and sheets, 639,653 cwt. At present the output of the coal mines does not yet suffice for all requirements of the works, but in the course of a year there will not only be sufficient coal to satisfy the whole demand of the works, but also a considerable quantity will remain for sale, as a coal field to which but little attention has hitherto been paid has now been discovered to be one of the richest fields in Silesia.

The greater part of the pig-iron produced by the company is used by the puddling and rolling works of the company. The conditions of sale have been very favourable for manufactured iron for the company, the quantity exceeded the maximum of every previous half-year, and still a good many orders could not be accepted. The increased enquiries caused naturally a rise of prices, and at the pre-

sent moment they are higher than they have been for 10 years, and there is every prospect that this state of affairs will continue, as the company has orders on its books which will give the works employment for more than a year, and there is a certain prospect of large contracts with railway companies. Under these circumstances a good dividend will be paid early this year, but at the same time the board of directors has resolved to devote a large part of the profits to a still further improvement of the works and mines. The shares, which were issued at par, are to-day quoted at 135. The price of iron is at present—bars, 12l. to 12l. 10s. per English ton; best charcoal sheets, 21l. ditto, at the works. Large coals best quality, about 12s.; nuts, about 9s. per ton at the pit's mouth.

The affairs of the Silesian Zinc Company (capital issued 7,300,000 thalers) have reached such dimensions that the board of directors has at last yielded to the wishes of the director-general, Mr. A. Schmoeder, under whose circumspect and energetic management the quantities of sheet zinc manufactured have increased from about 45,000 to above 270,000 cwt. per annum, and the price of the shares from about 40 to 103 to-day. To separate the commercial from the technical direction, Mr. S. retains the commercial department, and the technical direction passes into the hands of a Royal Councillor of Mines of great experience. The company which last year paid a dividend of 8 per cent., will this year probably only pay 6 per cent., because it has been resolved to add a large sum to the reserve fund, but the next year a much higher dividend is anticipated, because the company possesses large coal mines, one of which, the Mathildegrube, with an output of about 300,000 (English) tons per annum. The coal has so considerably increased in price that the sale of the quantity not required by the works will give 300,000 thalers more.

The price of spelter here shows not the least sign of a downward tendency. While in England the price has again considerably receded, here 7 to 8 thalers per cwt. has just been paid; and, after adding the low freight by water from Breslau to Hamburg (the navigation has not yet re-opened), freight from Hamburg to London, insurance, landing charges (taking the difference in weight between English and toll weight into consideration), this is at least equal to 23l. 10s. to 23l. 15s. per English ton delivered in London. If, after the English market is cleared of the present stock of Silesian zinc, which has been purchased at still lower prices, and will again require a new supply, it must pay higher prices, for nobody here will think of consigning spelter to England under present circumstances, and there will then be no other way than to buy it and to pay the prices obtainable for it here. The production of spelter has been (1871) about 50,000 cwt. less than in 1870; this year it will be less again. The calamity is getting of inferior quality, coals are dearer, workmen's wages have been increased since January, a great demand is springing up from France and Austria, and, for instance, Vienna requires 15,000 cwt. for the Exhibition building.

Breslau, Feb. 7.

CORRESPONDENT.

## REMARKS ON THE ORIGIN AND FORMATION OF METALLIFEROUS VEINS.

SIR,—In proportion as the igneous theory of the formation of metalliferous veins is investigated objections to it will suggest themselves in all directions. I have previously stated that the law of gravitation is of itself sufficient to account for a much greater density than that assigned to the earth. And I now add that the force of specific gravity must have played an important part, and have been everywhere active, during the formation of minerals by igneous agency; and the effects of this law ought everywhere to be met with, prominent amongst which would be an improvement in the quality of the ores in depth, arising from their greater specific gravity. Both these conditions would be accelerated by heat, which must always increase in descending towards the centre, or source, of terrestrial heat; and as a superior density is an attribute of metals, the heavier, in subsiding by change of temperature from their fluid suspension, must always form the lowest stratum—or, in other words, descend to the lowest available positions; but that such is not the case our mines afford sufficient evidence.

It is difficult to see by what arrangement the water could have been excluded from the fissures during the time they are alleged to have been filled by the depositions of substances condensed from igneous vapours and gases; and if it cannot be shown that such was the case the theory cannot be sustained, as gases ascending through water could not be the vehicle of any grosser substances; nor would the vapours arising from water itself admit of such conduction, as the temperature at which water becomes steam is much lower than that at which any of the metals of commerce are volatilised, and hence, instead of being a medium for transmitting the mineral and metallic substances, it would more nearly resemble a filter, and at once extract and condense them, and the result would be one of two things,—it would either form a mass in the bottom part of the fissure, which by becoming solid would soon be too dense for ebullition, and in that condition would soon effectually obstruct all egress and block up the channel; or else the condensed substances, by force of their greater specific gravity, would descend into the molten abyss, to become again the sport of its embracing and decomposing power, and thus the columns of water filling the fissures might be considered only as so many safety-valves, maintaining the equilibrium and indicating approximately the pressure of the impendable forces acting from within and upon the crust of the earth.

Another theory essaying to account for the formation of true fissure veins is that the fissures were first formed by some great convulsion of nature. The dynamic forces, acting from indefinite depths, rent the earth's crust, and formed the fissures, as we now find them. That into these fissures the percolating waters descended, charged with the several ingredients held in solution. Their deposition, or precipitation, from this state of solvency immediately took place, and continued until the respective fissures were filled with matters which were wrought by chemical and mechanical agencies into minerals—simply considered as such—and mineralised substances, metallic minerals, or, in other words, the ores of commerce and all other ores; and that the deposition of the minerals and the mineralised substances took place according to the laws of affinity. This theory also recognises periodical enlargement of some of the fissures by the same disruptive agency. This idea appears to have been suggested by the comby structure of the minerals found in them, and the number of combs in any individual vein is presumed to denote the number of times it has been enlarged. I readily endorse that part of this theory which alleges the filling process of the fissures to be by infiltration from congenial country rocks, whether contiguous or remote, but to the mode of their production I hesitate not to take the most unqualified exception; neither can I see that any evidence exists for the distinction which has been made between what are denominated respectively "true fissure," "gash," and "segregated" veins, since no evidence, internal or otherwise, can anywhere be found that the origin of metalliferous fissures of all denominations, and the filling thereof, are not due to the same agencies, and are the product of one invariable process, modified only according to its detail and progress. Viewing the subject in this light, I can only come to the conclusion that such distinctions are merely fanciful and arbitrary, not having any foundation in or support from observed facts.

Gash veins are alleged to have originated in fissures formed by contraction of the rocks during their passage from a plastic to an indurated state by their loss of the liquifying and expanding agents, whether such agents were aqueous or caloric, or both. But if this view be submitted to analogy, and determined by that standard, nothing could appear more improbable, since the line or strike of such fissures must thus have been subject to no law, and would have occurred in all conceivable directions, according to circumstances purely local and accidental, affected only by affinity, pressure, and gravitation. The depths of such fissures must, then, have depended on whether the aqueous or the caloric agency preponderated. If the former, the contraction of the nascent rocks by its evaporation must have been greatest at the surface, and declining in depth inversely to the square of the depth from the surface. There is no evading such a conclusion as this, since the intensity of both light and heat is inversely to the square of the distance from their emanating sources; and the evaporation of water, in a greater or less degree, is affected by the intensity of heat to which it may be sub-

jected, in a similar manner and to a similar extent, and also by atmospheric influences. Under such considerations as the foregoing, and subject to laws of Nature which are demonstrably unvariable and constant in their action, the conclusion must be arrived at that the depths of all metalliferous fissures must be in proportion to their width at the surface, provided that all other things were equal, including a uniform quantity of water everywhere pervading the material about to be consolidated into solid rock—that is, in law, if at the depth of 100 ft. a fissure were found to be 6 ft. in width, it would at 200 ft. be only 1 ft. 6 in., and at 300 ft., according to the law, it would gradually decline to 8 in., and so on proportionally until it absolutely terminated. But if heat predominated, as in the expanding agent in the incipient stages of rock and vein formation, then the fissures might be supposed to extend deeper, as the radiation of heat from the surface of the solid earth is more uniform and extensive than the evaporation of water from the same area, inasmuch as there are large tracts of rocky surface exposed to atmospheric influences which contain but little water, or covering either soil or subsoil. These are conditions which admit of variations of heat freely, and with almost invariable constancy, and only superficially, but extending to very great depths, as in situations the igneous rocks abound, and consequently would admit of contraction by the loss of heat to a much greater degree than could possibly take place in the same space of time from the evaporation of water under all circumstances.

The filling of the fissures said to be found in this way is alleged to be by infiltration, and the mass thus accumulated subjected to chemical action extending indefinitely through the space of ages. Why such a period should be assigned to Nature in the production of metalliferous minerals it is difficult to conjecture, especially when we know that the lapidifying process goes on more rapidly in other departments of the same domain. For instance, the formation of travertine, like stalactites and stalagmites, is constantly going on; particle after particle is being added to the general mass by a seemingly endless lapidifying and crystallising process from gradual depositions. Other rocks are being gradually built up, and each successive day witnesses the perfection of which has preceded it. The coral reefs, for instance: the foundation is coral, and the superstructure is coral, so far as raised, every individual atom added thereto as soon as incorporated comes coral, and no subsequent chemical change revolutionising the whole aggregated mass is necessary to perfect the process.

That the filling of the fissures is gradual, and extends over comparatively lengthy and indefinite periods of time, is perfectly consonant with the dictates of reason and the evidence of natural facts, as well as with experimental investigations. But that the elaboration of the contents of the fissures into ordinary and metallic minerals requires indefinite ages to be perfected is opposed by both nature and experimental facts, since the most perfect counterpart of them and their associate gangue can be artificially produced, subject to electric action, without even the aid of a voltaic battery, in from two to three weeks; and Mr. R. W. Fox's beautiful experiments shows with sufficient clearness that metallic and other minerals, being reduced to an impalpable powder, and indiscriminately mixed together, and wrought into a paste by the addition of water, will spontaneously arrange themselves according to their several affinities found in nature, under the simple action of voltaic electricity. It is well known that a few months only are necessary for the production of stratified rock as an incrustation of steam-boilers, large crystals are sometimes formed in this way in a comparatively short space of time. I have seen perfectly bevelled crystals of sulphate of barytes, of more than two square inches superficies, from steam-boilers, and scores of such at a time in pieces, or plates of about 1/2 inch in thickness, and from 2 to 3 ft. square.

Man sometimes stumbles upon a discovery by accident, but it is owing to the blindness and unsusceptibility of his faculties, the stupor of which he occasionally awakes to the observation of a new light, which he hails, and, possessing energy, follows, and guides him to the realisation of a new truth, which Leibig, I have said is equivalent to a new sense, and no one, I am convinced, of even ordinary intelligence can doubt the propriety of such simile, since every new fundamental truth discovered by the human mind, when duly appreciated, stand related thereto as a new fact being in and of itself a lever, or instrument of power. But Nature is not so blind and limited as man is to the discovery of truth, progressive steps, through various instrumentalities, and can be labelled with having accomplished more by accident than by sign, but rather that she sees the end from the beginning, and comprehends all intermediate events.

Gash veins are further considered to terminate with the strata in which they are formed, and are not merely affected by a change thereof, but entirely precluded from further continuance. I scarcely say that such a notion as this is decidedly fanciful, as well known to many practical miners that the main lodes—"true fissure veins"—of many districts are similarly affected under similar conditions.

It remains now to notice the class of veins inappropriately designated by the prefix "segregated," and to offer some remarks on what appears to me as the only tenable process of fissure and formations. My next letter will be in respect of these objects.

Ellsworth, Nye County, Nevada, Jan. 10.

ROBERT KEANE.

## "WHAT TO SELECT—WHAT TO AVOID"—No. XII.

SIR,—The uneasiness and uncertainty induced by the American difficulty has caused investors and speculators to restrict their operations to the narrowest possible limits. In the consequent depression mining has more than ordinarily participated, by reason of its knowledge that in the event of any serious complications, there is good reason to believe need not be apprehended, the value of metals would inevitably decline, more especially tin, America being one of our most important consumers of that metal.

The depression, however, has been more marked in the shares of American mines, the whole of which have been alike adversely affected, irrespectively altogether of the advices to hand from the different properties.

For the moment attention is being chiefly directed to sound dividend and progressive lead mines, the shares in many of which current quotations should be purchased without delay, offering, they do, large margins for important marketable advance on account of the encouraging manner in which their resources are being developed, and the improving condition of the lead market. Amongst sound dividend-paying lead mines I would point to Van, Tankerville and Roman Gravels; among progressive lead mines, Pennerley and West Tankerville.

PENNERLEY.—This mine is opening out in a manner that invites its successful competition at no distant day with its adjoining neighbour, Tankerville. Its returns are now 75 tons of lead per month, and will shortly be increased to 100 tons, an eminent authority the district having recently stated that from 125 to 150 tons per month could be legitimately returned from the mine in its present state of development. These shares are, without doubt, the cheapest in the market, considering the present returns, and the many important points to be attained during the next few months. It is not generally known that many years since the whole of this important series of mines (including Snailbeach, Tankerville, Roman Gravels, West Tankerville, Pennerley, and Bog) were opened, Pennerley from only one of its lodes returned as much as 60 and 80 tons of lead ore per month, lead at that time being considerably less value than it is now. About twelve years ago a new shaft was commenced in the east end of the sett, under the superintendence of Capt. Arthur Waters, and after sinking from the surface to the boat level, 50 fathoms, a lode worth 15 tons of lead per fathom was discovered, which led to the erection of powerful machinery, and extensive general plant for the re-opening of the mine. Capt. Waters expressed an opinion long since, which is being verified by results, that every mine in the district which had a full and miner-like development has turned out a rich mine to the shareholders. Since the present company took possession of the mine active underground operations have been prosecuted, resulting in most important discoveries on Warm Water lode, which is parallel to Big Ore lode, on which up to that period the chief



Fig. 1 is a front elevation of the coffer, constructed preferably of cast-iron. Each stanchion, A, is cast with a flange at bottom, by which it is firmly bolted to the wooden sleepers, B. C is the coffer in which the ores are pulverised by the stamps, E. To the stanchions, A, are bolted the oak posts or standards, D, which support the framework or upper part of the apparatus. E are the stamps with their lifters, which may be raised by cams as usual, or in any other suitable manner; F is an iron bottom or bed on which rest the substances to be broken. The stanchions, A, have an opening, G, a similar opening being provided on either side of the coffer, so as to afford a clear grate-way for discharge way on all sides unobstructed by the framework, as has been the case hitherto, thereby permitting a freer egress of the pulverised substances. The stanchions, A, are formed with angle pieces at the corners of the coffer, to which the boards forming the front of the coffer are bolted. H is the grate. It consists of a perforated sheet of metal extending round the interior to the coffer on every side where the grate way is situate. In the figures this sheet of metal is shown on three sides of the coffer, the opening at which the coffer is charged being situated on the fourth side, but the discharge might be easily arranged for the fourth side also. The angles of the stanchions, A, stand off from the angles of the grate, the entire surface of which is, therefore, utilised, not being partially blocked up by the framework of the coffer as hitherto. I is a metal lining or frame bolted on the inside of the coffer around each opening, G, by bolts, L, passing through the stanchions A. The grate, H, is clamped firmly against this lining, I, by a frame, K, placed within the opening or discharge way, and having projecting lugs on the back by which the frame is pressed against the grate, and secured by a cross-bar, K', passing through the staples, L, and pressed home by wedges, M. N is a rim or packing of some yielding substance, such as india-rubber or flannel, bound round a rim of iron compressed between the frame, K, and the edge of the grate plate, for which it serves as a caulking to prevent leakage around the grate. L' are bolts to secure the staples, L, to the stanchions A. The said bolts may also support one end of the end grate plates or linings, I, and for this purpose their inner ends are countersunk so as to be flush with the inner surface of the plate L. N' are metal plates secured by bolts N'', with which the interior of the coffer is lined as usual; and O is an iron shutter sliding in grooves in the framework of the coffer, and serving to regulate the supply of the substance to be broken. It is supported by the angle iron, O', resting on the top of the foot piece A. P, P, are wood blocks with which the back angles may be filled when the grate is made to stand there instead of being carried quite around the coffer. This is sometimes done in order to open a broad aperture, R, for charging to the level of the grate hole, which would otherwise have to be done above that level. In the latter case the grate, H, would be carried round all four sides of the coffer clear of the rear angles. In this case a clamping device would be applied to the rear opening to hold the grate the same as for the other openings. - In the coffer shown



the material to be pulverised is fed in through the aperture, B, Fig. 3, by a pass leading from the hopper containing the supply, the amount of opening being regulated in the usual manner by the shutter O.

Like almost all other real improvements, this one is very obvious, and it cannot fail to place many pounds in the pockets of the adventurers of the mines in which it may be adopted.

### MECHANICAL REPRESENTATION OF GEOLOGICAL PHENOMENA.

It is now so generally admitted that success in the development of industrial undertakings is almost entirely dependent upon the judgment and sound technical knowledge possessed by those entrusted with the management of them that, by all connected with mining enterprise in stratified formations, the value of "Sopwith's Models" should be more generally recognised than ever. The inventor of this very ingenious method of mechanically representing geological phenomena is Mr. THOMAS SOPWITH, M.A., F.R.S., who for many years managed the extensive lead mines of Mr. W. B. Beaumont, whence the celebrated W.B. lead is derived, and, although his models have been for more than a quarter of a century before the public, improvements upon them have not even been attempted. In the Government Museum of Practical Geology, in Jermyn-street, are several models of mining districts, on a large scale, by Mr. Sopwith, which are well worthy of careful examination; but, in addition to these, there is a smaller set, which is even more interesting, from its adaptability to the purposes of instruction. The set embraces twelve models, and, as they are intended to explain several geological phenomena which have an important bearing on practical mining, and on the exploration of new districts containing valuable minerals, we subjoin diagrams of each.

The first model, which is shown in the annexed diagram, illustrates the effects of denudation, and represents a square mass of carboniferous or mountain limestone of Alston Moor, in the county of Cumberland, on a scale of 100 ft. to an inch. The seams of coal lie in the same manner as the rest of the strata, and if these had remained unaltered in the position in which they were deposited it is obvious that the upper rocks only would have been known to us.\* Denudation, by which large portions of these stratified rocks were subsequently washed away, formed extensive valleys which afford convenient access to the various strata, an advantage which will be at once understood by removing the upper part of the model.

Next we are shown the coal strata near Newcastle-on-Tyne, on a scale of 10 chains or 220 yards to the inch. The undulation of the surface and the basinet, or cropping out, of a seam of coal is the effect of denudation. Successive beds of coal are represented by laminae of ebony. The underground workings are delineated on the Bensham seam, the depth of which at Wallsend is about 870 ft., or more than twice the height of the cross of St. Paul's Cathedral.

Dislocation of carboniferous strata is next explained by a model constructed in four parts, which may be separated, and thus exhibit—1st, the original position of strata; 2d, the shifting and vertical displacement; 3d, the appearance of the surface after the inequalities are removed. The line of displacement illustrates the nature of mineral veins, which are fissures in the strata, attended with more or less vertical movement of adjacent rocks.

The deceptive appearances resulting from successive dislocations. The model represents calcareous, siliceous, and argillaceous strata, with thin seams of coal, which basinet or crop several times on the surface, and present a fallacious idea of the strata beneath, for though several beds of coal appear at the surface, there is no considerable quantity beneath. An excellent illustration of such faults is given in Mr. Buddle's section of Jarrow Colliery, inserted in De la Beche's "Sections and Views illustrative of Geological Phenomena."

In the model last referred to, the surface presents an apparent abundance of coal where scarcely any exists below. We have here an example of dislocations of coal strata corresponding with the condition of most of the large collieries in the kingdom; no coal appears at the surface, although subject to considerable faults or dislocations below. A curious horizontal section is presented to view by removing the upper portion of the model; and, however singular the strata on some of the surface faces appear, the principle of construction of these models is at once a demonstration of their accuracy.

Next we see the effect of the intersection of mineral veins. In this model the surface of a dislocated seam of coal is shown by supposing the superincumbent strata to have been removed. The vein represented by white wood is the first-formed vein. It hades or inclines with the bottom to the east, and the strata on the east side are thrown down 40 feet. Subsequently a second vein has been formed, whence further dislocation ensued, by which the rocks on the east side of the newly-formed vein have been thrown up 70 feet; and hence the seam of coal which was originally a regular plane, like that shown in model No. 2, is separated into four parts, and, taking the highest portion for a datum, one part is 40 feet, another 70 ft., and another 110 ft. below it. It may readily be imagined what serious difficulties arise from these dislocations, and how important it is for the welfare of the country that a correct knowledge of them should be preserved. The instructive lessons which the vast mining operations of this country afford cannot be too carefully treasured, in order to avoid the waste of time and capital and the loss of life which may ensue from opening mines which have been partially worked—a danger which nothing but the preservation of accurate mining records can avert.

Some phenomena of mineral veins are well explained by the succeeding model. The vertical cliffs caused by displacement of the strata do not now exist, having been removed by extensive denudation. The intersection of veins on such a denuded surface is often an extremely complicated problem, of which the present model is an example. In one part of the model it may be seen that the mineral vein, nearly vertical, is scarcely to be distinguished from the horizontal strata, but the true relations are apparent on examining the edges of the model.

Overcut strata are next explained. If the strata had remained in the nearly horizontal position in which they were deposited, any subsequent grinding away of the surface of any stratum would have worn off the upper portion, and denuded first the upper, then the lower strata, which may in such case be said to be overcut, as shown in this model. In every case where the strata are overcut they form a V-like shape, pointing up the valley; the higher rocks appear to be the highest, and the seams of coal are to be worked above the place where they basinet or crop out.

Then we have a model showing undercut strata. It frequently happens that the strata are inclined at a steeper angle with the horizon than the surface of the country, in which case they may be said to have been undercut by the process of denudation, as shown by this model. The V-like form of the strata now points down instead of up the valley, as in the preceding model. The highest rocks appear the lowest, and the coal is to be worked below where it crops out. These terms of overcut and under-

\* The upper part of the model, which illustrates the unaltered strata, is not shown in the diagram, which, therefore, only represents the denuded aspect of the surface after removal of the superincumbent rocks.

cut apply to plane surfaces as well as to valleys; but steeply undulating surfaces have been selected as affording the most striking illustration of these features, which are of general practical use in the observation of a mineral district.

The models hitherto explained have been either cases of horizontal strata or of strata inclined in the same direction as that of the surface. In this model we have an instance of denuded basinet of inclined strata; the strata here are inclined in the opposite direction to the descent of the valley, and in every such case they are undercut—hence the V-like form tends upwards. This and the two previous models form an epitome of the conditions under which stratified rocks are denuded, and of the characteristic marks by which their relative inclination, as regards the surface, may be ascertained.

The effect of the vertical intersection of mineral veins is next shown. The strata represented in this model are dislocated by four mineral veins, and the plane surfaces of the model afford a clear view of the geometrical relations of the several rocks. Two sides show the original horizontal deposition; the other two sides the subsequent disturbance or dislocations. On one of these may be observed the intersection of two veins on a vertical section. By removing the upper part of the model the same intersection is shown on the oblique plane, and again a horizontal surface on the base of the model, as it would be represented by the ordinary ground plan of a mine.

In the example of the denudation of mineral veins shown in the last model of the series, the conditions of the strata are the same as in the preceding model, but the denuded surface furnishes a view of the peculiar and frequently very perplexing appearance of such intersections of veins and disturbed strata.

The number of separate pieces of wood which enter into the composition of these twelve models would scarcely be anticipated. The first two, explaining denudation, are formed of 21 and 25 pieces respectively. The next three, showing ordinary dislocations, contain 27, 70, and 66 pieces respectively. The sixth and seventh, referring more directly to mineral veins, contain 17 and 73 pieces. The next three models, explaining the conditions under which stratified rocks are denuded, consist of 45, 22, and 17 pieces; and the remaining two, illustrating the vertical intersection of mineral veins and the denudation of mineral veins, contain 130 and 66 respectively—no less than 579 pieces entering into the composition of the twelve models.

The information afforded by this set is very complete, and it is understood that Mr. Sopwith is at present preparing a smaller series of six models representing the most important features, with somewhat less of minute detail, in order to place this system of study within the reach of all.

### "LODES"—"HEAVES"—"SLIDES."

The attempt which is being made by the Miners' Association of Cornwall and Devon to elicit information from the practical miner promises to bear good fruit. The following account of a district meeting at Illogan, on Friday, Jan. 26 (Capt. HOSKING, of East Pool Mine, in the chair), will be read with interest. We learn that other similar meetings are being organised.

Capt. JOHN MAYNARD, of East Pool, read a paper on "Lodes," "Heaves," and "Slides," of which the following is an abstract:—

The opinion of the "old school" was that our earth is now as it was when first created. To such persons the ideas of rocks of different ages is an absurdity. I must beg to differ from those who still hold such opinions—to me it is perfectly clear, speaking of our own neighbourhood, that the granite, the killas, the lodes, and the cross-course, the elvans, and ironstones have been formed at different times. The same rocks are found cutting through granite, killas, and other kinds of rock, some crystalline, some evidently sedimentary; in some districts indeed—as at Crinall—cutting through slates containing fossil remains of the wall. The same thing may be said of elvan courses, which often cut through granite and slate alike.

There is abundant evidence of dislocation and shifting of the rocks in many parts of England; these dislocations are known as "faults,"—often great masses have been thrown upwards, or carried sideways, by some cause acting from the heated interior of the earth.

As to the origin of lodes and other veins a very few words may here suffice. They are, by many, supposed to be cracks or fissures, formed by the contraction of masses of rock cooling down from a high temperature, sometimes from a state of fusion; and afterwards fill up in different ways. The consideration of the part of the subject, and the different theories which have been put forth, would be of itself more than sufficient for one whole evening. Our subject this evening is chiefly to consider what we call "heaves" and "slides."

I believe that heaves are in all cases caused by one or more dislocations of the strata, extending over whole districts. The fissures so formed are called cross-courses, floons, slides, breast heads, or caunter lodes, according to their size, direction, and the nature of the matter which fills them. When a lode is crossed by a caunter lode it is sometimes more and sometimes less productive than before, but there is in most cases a change in the lode. The intersections sometimes occur without altering the course of either the lode or the cross-vein, but generally one is found to be heaved to the right or to the left more or less. These things are generally noticed more by tributaries than by any others. We have often, no doubt, been working our pitch in a productive lode, and thought we were doing well—after awhile we have met with a breast head, a cross vein, or joint less than a finger's thickness, when at once the ore is gone, and our spirit has qualified. We have sounded the rock on this side and on that,—sometimes we find the lode again, shifted about its own width to the right or to the left,—sometimes up and sometimes down,—at the time we have given up the pitch in despair. All miners know that such is the case, but the question is, how shall we know which way to drive to find the lode again? I believe that the key to the whole is to be found in a sinking of the ground on one side of the fissure, or its upheaval on the other by some force acting from below. This motion—taken in connection with the underlie of the lodes, will in the great majority of cases account thoroughly for the heave, &c., which so frequently trouble the miner.

As illustrative of my meaning, I beg to refer to the section of East Pool Mine, now on the wall. In this mine we have two lodes, one underlying north the other south. Generally when a cross-course heaves two lodes having a similar direction they are both heaved in the same direction. In this case they are heaved in different directions, one to the right the other to the left. If I am right in my opinion, the granite, killas, and lodes have since the formation of the lodes been fissured across, and the fissure having been afterwards filled in with quartz and other matter forms the cross-course. The ground on one side of this cross-course has sunk straight down, or that on the other side has been raised vertically, and such a motion of necessity has produced the unusual peculiarity of a right and left hand heave of the same cross-vein. Had the lodes been vertical they would not have been heaved at all, and we should have had no evidence of motion. If they had both underlie in the same direction both heaves would have been to the right or to the left, and we might have thought the motion horizontal, but having different underlies, the different heaves prove that the motion was vertical or nearly vertical; and this, I believe, been generally the case. I think, then, that the proper way to learn how to drive when the lode is lost is to make ourselves acquainted with the direction and underlie of all the lodes and cross-veins in the neighbourhood, and especially with the heaves which may have occurred in neighbouring mines.

The paper was illustrated by many sections showing heaves, &c., in mines known to Capt. Maynard.

Capt. ROGERS, of Huel Uny, asked whether Capt. Maynard had ever known men capable of telling how far, and in which direction, to look for a heaved lode? Capt. MAYNARD had known many—especially tributaries—who would be right in nine cases out of ten; but such men were always naturally desirous of keeping such knowledge to themselves. The fact often remarked—that the extent of the heave was proportionate to the width of the cross-course—might be easily illustrated. (Capt. Maynard illustrated this statement by means of several very simple wooden models made in parts.)

Capt. HOSKING, of East Pool Mine, had known many tributaries who would be able to say where to look for a lost lode, in most cases, in their own neighbourhood. One man, John George by name, was so well acquainted with the heaves in the neighbourhood of St. Agnes, that the cross-veins in one particular district were known as "Jan Georges."

After several remarks from Messrs. Josiah Rogers, — Trevethen, and George Terrell.

Mr. COLLINS observed that with such rocks as those in Cornwall, direct evidence of vertical motion was scarcely to be expected in many instances. In the colliery districts, however, where the rocks occurred in parallel layers or beds, the proofs of vertical motion were innumerable. He called attention to Mr. Henwood's valuable generalisation,—"the heaves of all lodes, by the same cross-vein, are in the same direction." To this rule there are but three exceptions in the whole 114 examples noted by Mr. Henwood up to the year 1843. The heave of East Pool, so simply accounted for by Capt. Maynard, would, of course, be such an exception. Mr. Henwood had also observed that "the extent of the heave was in direct proportion to the width of the cross-vein." Such considerations showed plainly the importance of an extended knowledge of the phenomena of the lodes and veins in whole districts.

\* Transactions of the Royal Geological Society of Cornwall. Vol. v., 1843, p. 324.

IMPROVEMENTS IN STEAM-ENGINES.—The first part of the invention of Mr. GEORGE WILK, of Mansfield, consists in applying an adjustable valve in the entrance to the condenser, and thereby causing an increase of pressure in the passage between the cylinder and condenser, or in a feed-heater forming part of such passage, and injecting into the feed-heater, or passage, the

water due to condensation in the main condenser. By a second improvement, chamber, or feed-heater, is arranged in connection with the cylinder, and forming a part of the passage through to the main condenser. A separate passage leading to the feed-heater, is provided in the usual manner, and in a separate port-face, and the main slide-valve, or a separate valve arranged to open the communication at suitable periods. There may be more such separate feed-heaters, arranged for different pressures.

### AERIAL NAVIGATION.

The true question of aerial navigation is described by Mr. COURTÉMACHE, of Paris, to consist merely in the form or construction of an apparatus having power to elevate, lower, and direct itself in the air by a force which it derives from the air itself. In his assertion, although not strictly in accordance with fact, is doubtless a sufficient accuracy for anyone seeking with present appliances a mode of producing motion to overcome the obstacles to aerial navigation. Mr. Courtémache proposes that his ship shall be placed in motion by a steam-engine, which will actuate three screws, placed at the rear for propelling, the two others are placed one for elevating, and a rudder placed at the front. It has at the stern (two at the front and two behind) four inclined planes or wings, which according to the requirements are either turned down or fixed to the sides, or raised and extended by means of a system of cords and pulleys, by men placed upon seats on a foot bridge situated below the vessel. The ship will also be provided with supports, placed two beneath the rear end and two below the posterior screw. Its greatest width will be about 45 feet, its greatest height including the foot bridge will be about 85 feet. These dimensions will be such that in all the transverse sections will present an oval or egg shaped form. The fish-like form which is given it is that which is best adapted for cleaving the air with much effort, to rise easily, and to allow of advantageous working of the screws and rudder, and the wings and inclined planes. The greatest width of the vessel will be about two-thirds of its height in order that the ascending screws may be in free air, so as to work effectively.

Were not the weight of materials the sole basis upon which calculation as to the practicability or otherwise of any proposed apparatus for navigating the air can be made it would have been supposed that this important point had entirely occupied Mr. Courtémache's attention, for he states that in the construction of his vessel large pieces of timber will form keels, one below and one above, one extending the whole length. These keels meet, and are joined together at the front and rear, and consequently, form the centre of the vessel. From these keels wooden beams, forming stanchions, extend from the lower keel to the upper one. On the stanchions upon a trellis, is stretched cloth coated with oil varnish, consequently at the same time that the apparatus possesses sufficient solidity to overcome the resistance of the air, it is also in two parts (there being left in the centre of the vessel an open space wherein the engine is placed), which by the employment here made of them will be of great utility, and at the same time of no great weight. The underside of the engine-room will be covered with cloth coated with oil varnish. It is advisable to cover this part in order to prevent the air from being drawn in, and thus endangering the equilibrium of the vessel, especially in ascending.

It is not distinctly stated what kind of engine Mr. Courtémache proposes to use, but it is obvious that the selection of a suitable one will render it necessary to call in the aid of some of the largest manufacturers, as looking at the dimensions of the apparatus it will be seen that it must be of the same power as would be requisite to move a vessel to steam against the wind with 400,000 square feet of canvas flying. The successful navigation of the machine will give great satisfaction.

### PROGRESS OF DISCOVERIES IN ELECTRICITY.

#### SUPPLEMENT TO WATT'S DICTIONARY.

The article on Analysis by Flame Reactions has been already referred to as giving a fair idea of the admirable and exhaustive manner in which several subjects are treated in Watt's Dictionary of Chemistry; \* the article on Electricity may be cited as further evidence. The description of Holtz's electrical machine, with the article commences, is excellent, a very large amount of information being furnished in less than three pages. Holtz's machine, it is explained, is a machine in which a very small initial charge made to give rise to an indefinitely great quantity of electricity of high tension. Its action may be described in general terms as equivalent to that of a condenser and a condenser, combined together in such a way as to act upon each other alternately, the condenser being first charged by the electrophorus, re-acting upon it so as to increase the charge of the cake; next being charged by the electrophorus to a higher degree, and re-acting upon it more and more before; and so on, the charge of each becoming greater and greater until the insulation is overcome. A very explicit drawing of the machine is there usually constructed is given, and it is observed that it consists of a circular plate of thin and very flat glass, mounted on an insulating ebonite axis, and it can rotate in a vertical plane; and a second glass plate, also of thin and very flat glass, is fixed parallel to it, with its centre in the same horizontal line as a very short (½ in. or ¾ in.) distance from it. At the middle of the plate there is a round hole, through which the axle of the movable plate passes without touching, and there are two deep notches or windows cut out at the ends of a diameter; at the back of the glass (that is at the side away from the rotating plate) a piece of paper about 2 in. broad is pasted on the lower edge of one of these openings, and a similar piece is pasted on the upper edge of the other opening, each of these pieces of paper having projecting from it a couple of tongues of stiff paper long enough to project through the notches, and just touch the movable plate; both the papers and their projecting tongues are well varnished.

On the side of the movable plate which is farthest away from the fixed plate and opposite to the two pieces of paper just mentioned, are two collectors, consisting of a row of metal points projecting from an insulated metal arm within a very small distance of the rotating plate. These collectors are connected with the main conductors of the machine, each of which is provided with a movable discharging rod, by means of which they can at will be placed in electrical connection with each other, or separated by any required distance. In order to put the machine in action the two collectors are connected with the movable plate is set rotating at a moderate speed, and while it is an electrified body, such as a piece of ebonite excited by friction, or the electrophorus, is brought near to, or in contact with, one of the paper tongues. Both the papers then rapidly become strongly charged with opposite kinds of electricity; and if the knobs of the discharging rods are separated a short distance a stream of sparks is seen to pass between them. These sparks become less frequent, but larger and brighter, if each of the conductors is connected with the inside coating of an insulated Leyden jar. The sparks increase in size, but diminish in frequency, when the discharging knobs are moved further apart; but if the distance between them be made greater than a certain limit, depending chiefly upon the insulation of the different parts of the machine, the sparks cease to pass altogether, and unless the knobs be quickly brought nearer to each other the machine soon ceases to act.

Then follows an explanation of the action of the machine, and it is afterwards mentioned that besides the machine just described Holtz has constructed other machines acting upon the same general principle, but differing considerably in arrangement; the construction has also been varied and simplified by Poggendorff. The most important alteration being the substitution of small holes in the plate enough to let the tongues of the paper armatures pass through for the openings of Holtz's original form. Thomson's electrometers are next described, and then a section is given on new forms of galvanic batteries, including Walker's platinum carbon batteries, the bichromate of potassium battery, La Rue and Müller's chloride of silver battery, Bunsen's sulphate of zinc battery, Leclanché's battery, Miedler's battery, Thomson's battery, and Halse's battery. In subsequent sections Thomson's galvanometer, several magneto-electric induction machines, the electric resistance of conductors, the standards of electrical resistance, the absolute measurement of electric distance, and the comparative of electro-motive forces, are each carefully treated, the whole article being thus made as complete and exhaustive as possible.

\* "A Dictionary of Chemistry, and the Allied Branches of other Sciences," by HENRY WATTS, B.A., F.R.S., assisted by eminent contributors. Supplement. London: Longmans, Green, and Co.

MANUFACTURE OF SULPHURIC ACID AND SULPHATES.—The invention of Messrs. HARGREAVES and ROBINSON, of Widnes, embraces a whole series of improvements. The object of the first part of the invention is to obtain sulphuric acid and sulphates by utilising a large waste. They prepare the alkali waste by mixing it with a solution of preferably chloride of calcium, then running the mixture into a closed vessel, and admitting hydrochloric acid. Sulphide of calcium is decomposed, and sulphate of hydrogen liberated. A portion of the sulphate of calcium formed in the above operation is used to prepare more alkali waste being acted on. The clinders and coarse particles from the alkali waste are strained out, or prevented from passing into the decomposing vessel, by referring to use sulphide of calcium in excess, and to pump back into the previous vessel the excess which settles out. The sulphide of hydrogen is then removed by being burnt for the production, by ordinary means, of sulphuric acid or is used directly in the production of sulphates. The second part of the invention relates to burning sulphur and pyrites in the manufacture of sulphuric acid and sulphates, and consists in adding steam moisture to the air caused to pass through, amongst, or over chloride of sodium or chloride of



**AUTOMATIC COMPENSATING MECHANISMS FOR ENGINE GOVERNORS.**—The invention of Mr. G. H. Davis, of Harris, is designed to afford a simple and an effective means for regulating governors while preserving their freedom and "sensitiveness." It adopts two arrangements based on the same principle—the first is a differential motion automatic compensator; and the second an inverse motion automatic compensator. In the first arrangement a screw and nut and two wheels are arranged in combination with the governor. Thus as the engine speed increases or decreases the nut will move in one direction as the engine runs at its normal velocity the nut will remain midway between the wheels, and its tooth will not come in contact with their teeth, but as soon as the speed is either increased or diminished the tooth of the nut will come in







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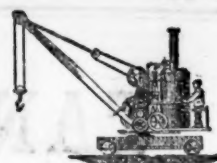
WORKS: REGENT'S PLACE, COMMERCIAL ROAD EAST, LONDON, E.

(At Regent's Canal, near Stepney Station).

CITY OFFICE: 117, CANNON STREET, LONDON, E.C.



STATIONARY ENGINE

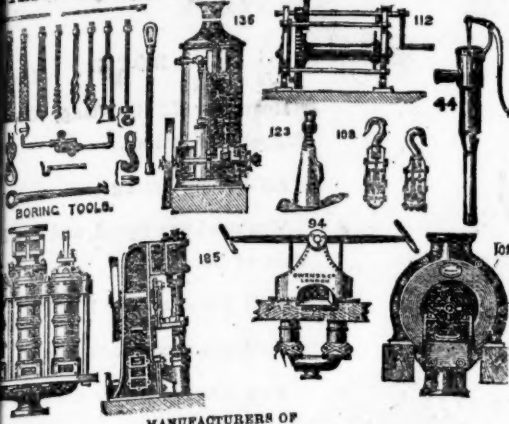


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GREAT ECONOMY  
AND  
CLEAR WIDE SPACE.  
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54, PORTLAND STREET,  
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The above drawing shows the construction of this cheap and handsome roof much used for covering factories, stores, sheds, farm buildings, &c., the girders of which are double bow and string girders of best pine timber, spaced with 1/2 in. boards, supported on the girders by pulleys running longitudinally, the whole being covered with patent waterproof roofing felt. These roofs combine lightness with strength that they can be constructed up to 100 ft. span without centre supports, thus not only affording a clear wide space, but a great saving both in the cost of roof and uprights.  
They can be made with or without top-lights, ventilators, &c. Felt roofs of description executed in accordance with plans. Prices for plain roofs from 10s. 6d. per square, according to span, size, and situation.  
Manufacturers of PATENT FELTED SHEATHING, for covering ships' bottoms under copper or zinc.  
IMPROVED FELT for lining damp walls and for covering floor cloths.  
HAIR FELT, for deadening sound and for covering steam pipes, thereby saving 25 per cent. in fuel by preventing the radiation of heat.  
PATENT ASPHALTE ROOFING FELT, price 1d. per square foot.  
Wholesale buyers and exporters allowed liberal discounts.  
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Silent Fans for blowing and exhaust-  
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Direct-acting Steam Fans.  
Centrifugal Pumps and Pumping En-  
gines.  
Turbine Water Wheels, for high and  
low falls, and variable quantities of  
water.  
Cast-iron Smiths' Hearths.  
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ILLUSTRATED PRICE LISTS AND REFER-  
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PUMP LEATHER  
WATERPROOF.  
A special method of preparation, this leather is made solid, perfectly close  
texture, and impermeable to water; it has, therefore, all the qualifications  
essential for pump buckets, and is the most durable material of which they can  
be made. It may be had of all dealers in leather, and of  
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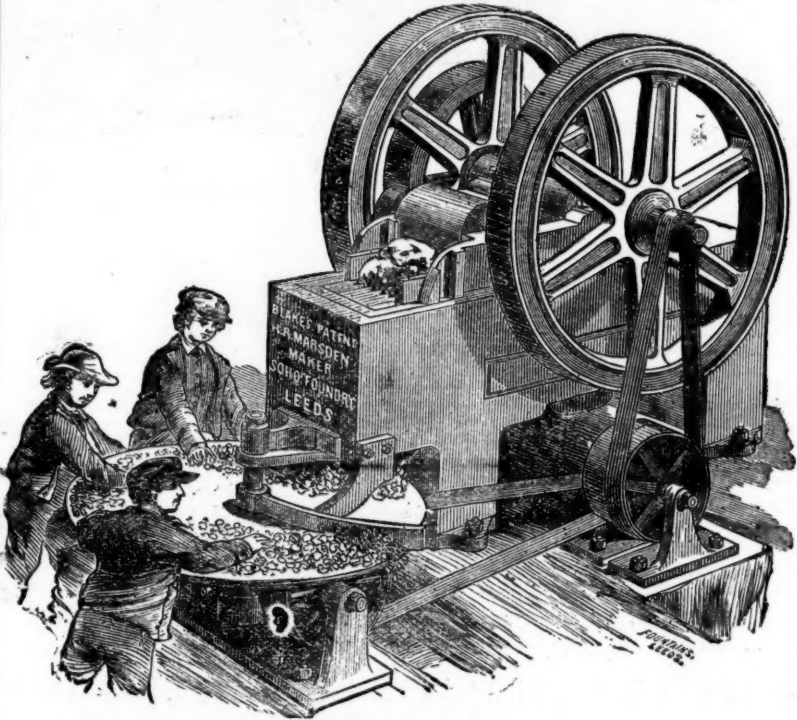
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This is the only machine that has proved a success. This machine was shown in full operation at the  
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It is rapidly making its way to all parts of the globe, being now in profitable use in California, Washoe,  
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The Parys Mining Company, Parys Mines, near  
Bangor, June 6.—We have had one of your stone  
breakers in use during the last 12 months, and  
Capt. Morcom reports most favourable as to its  
capabilities of crushing the materials to the re-  
quired size, and its great economy in doing away  
with manual labour.

For the Parys Mining Company,  
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The Van Mining Company (Limited), Van  
Mines, Llanidloes, Feb. 6, 1871.—Our machine, a  
10 by 7, is now breaking 180 tons of stone for the  
crusher every 24 hours. I may say, of all our  
machinery, that for simplicity of construction  
and dispatch in their work, they are equal to any-  
thing in the kingdom, but your stone breaker  
surpasses them all.  
H. R. Marsden, Esq., Leeds. W. WILLIAMS.

Chacewater, Cornwall, Jan. 27, 1869.—I have  
great pleasure in stating that the patent stone  
breaker I bought of you some three years ago  
for mines in Chili, continues to do its work well,  
and gives great satisfaction. It crushes the  
hardest copper ore stone—put it through 1/2 inch  
size by horse power—with great ease. I can  
safely recommend it to all in want of a crusher;  
can be driven by steam, water, or horse power.  
H. R. Marsden, Esq. JAMES PHILLIPS.

Terras Tin Mining Co. (Limited), near Gram-  
pound Road, Cornwall, Jan. 1871.—Blake's patent  
stone crusher, supplied by you to this company, is  
a fascination—the wonder and admiration of the  
neighbourhood. Its simplicity is also surprising.  
Persons visiting it when not at work have been  
heard to remark, "This can't be all of the ma-  
chine." It will crush to a small size from 8 to  
10 tons of very hard and tough elvan rock per  
hour; taking into its leviathan jaws pieces of the  
hardest rock, weighing 200 lbs. or more, masti-  
cating the same into small bits with as much ap-  
parent ease and pleasure as does a horse his  
mouthful of oats. On every 100 tons of the rock  
crushed by the machine there is a direct saving  
to the company of not less than 25 over the pro-  
cess of hand labour previously adopted by them,  
and the indirect saving much more, the machine  
being ever ready to perform the duties required  
of it. It breaks the stuff much smaller, and in  
form so fitted for the stamps, that they will pul-  
verise one-third more in a given time than when  
performed by hand labour.  
H. R. Marsden, Esq., Leeds. JOS. GILBERT MARTIN.

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stone breaker does its work admirably, crushing  
the hardest stones and quartz. WM. DANIEL.

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est copper ore stone per hour.  
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by 12 machine effects a saving of the labour of  
about 30 men, or \$75 per day. The high estima-  
tion in which we hold your invention is shown by  
the fact that Mr. Park has just ordered a third  
machine for this estate. SILAS WILLIAMS.

Your stone breaker gives us great satisfaction.  
We have broken 101 tons of Spanish pyrites with  
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adapted to the nature of the work to be done.

"I herewith certify that the Rangoon Engine Oil, manufactured by Messrs. Chas. Price and Co., is  
free from any material which can produce corrosion of the metal work of machinery. It is indeed  
calculated to protect metallic surfaces from oxidation.

"The lubricating power of this oil is equal to Sperm or Lard Oil.  
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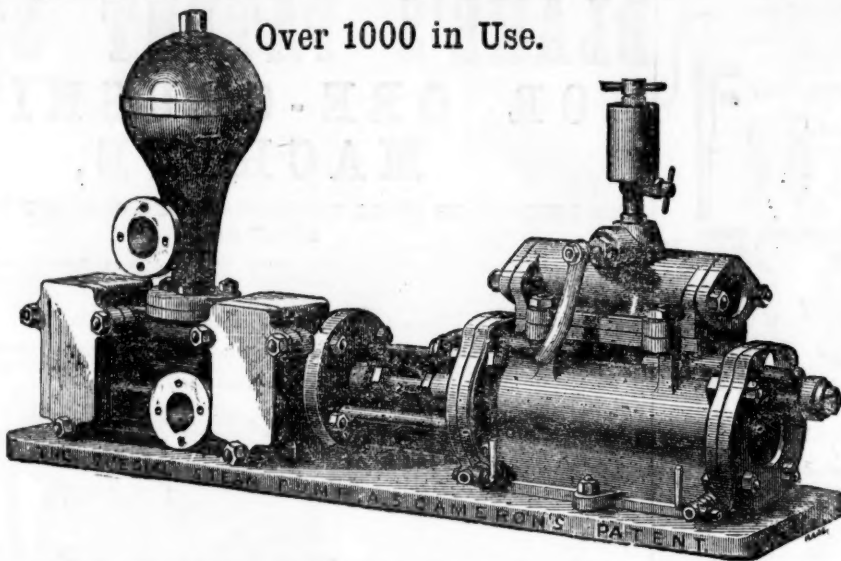
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## IN USE AT THE FOLLOWING QUARRIES:—

Carnarvon and Bangor Slate Co. ...	5 Pumps.
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Scott, R. W., Dungannon, Ireland ...	1 "
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Burt, Boulton, and Hayward, Tar Works, Millwall ...	1 "
Cory and Co., Manor-street, Old Kent-road ...	2 "
Whiffen, Thomas, Battersea ...	1 "
Jones, W., and Co., Middlesborough ...	4 "
Jarrow Chemical Co., South Shields ...	1 "
Richardson, J. G. and N. H., Jarrow-on-Tyne ...	1 "
Read, Holliday, & Sons, Huddersfield ...	1 "
Sheldon, Nixon, and Co., West Jarrow ...	2 "
Tennant, C. and Co., near Newcastle ...	7 "
Webb, H., & Co. (Manure), Worcester ...	1 "
Union Chemical Company, Stratford ...	1 "



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Requires NO Shafting, Gears, Riggers, or Belts.

All Double-Acting:

Works at any Speed, and any Pressure of Steam.

Will Force to any Height.

Delivers a constant stream.

Can be placed any distance from a Boiler.

Occupies little space.

Simple, Durable, Economical.

## IN USE AT THE FOLLOWING COLLIERIES:—

Adelaide Colliery, Bishop Auckland ...	3 Pumps.	North Bitchburn Colliery, Darlington ...	2 Pumps.	Stott, James, and Co., Burslem ...	1 Pump.
Acomb Colliery, Hexham ...	1 "	Newton Cap Colliery, Darlington ...	1 "	Seaton Delaval Coal Company, near Newcastle ...	1 "
Blackfell Colliery, Gateshead ...	1 "	Normanby Mines ...	1 "	Thornley Colliery, Ferryhill ...	1 "
Black Boy Colliery, Gateshead ...	1 "	Oakenshaw Colliery ...	1 "	Thompson, John, Gateshead ...	2 "
Castle Eden Colliery ...	2 "	Pease's West Colliery ...	2 "	Trimdon Grange Colliery ...	1 "
Crofton, J. Ct., near Ferryhill ...	1 "	Pease, J. and J. W., near Crook ...	5 "	Tudhoe Colliery ...	4 "
Carr, W. C., Newcastle ...	4 "	Pease, J. and J., Brandon Colliery ...	1 "	Vobster and Mells Colliery ...	2 "
Etherley Colliery ...	1 "	Pegwood Colliery, near Morpeth ...	2 "	Widdington Colliery, Morpeth ...	2 "
Gidlow, T., Wigan ...	3 "	Pelton Fell Colliery ...	1 "	Whitworth and Spennymoor Colliery ...	3 "
Haswell, Shotton, and Easington Coal Co. ...	2 "	Railey Fell Colliery, Darlington ...	1 "	Westerton Colliery, Bishop Auckland ...	1 "
Looghelly Iron and Coal Company ...	1 "	Right Hon. Earl Durham, Fence Houses ...	1 "	Wardley Colliery, Gateshead ...	1 "
Leather, J. T., near Leeds ...	2 "	Skelton Mines ...	1 "	Westminster Brymbo Coal Company ...	2 "
Lumley Colliery, Fence Houses ...	1 "	South Beaulieu Colliery ...	4 "	Weardale Coal and Iron Company ...	6 "
Monkwearmouth Colliery, Sunderland ...	1 "	St. Helens (Tindale) Colliery ...	1 "		

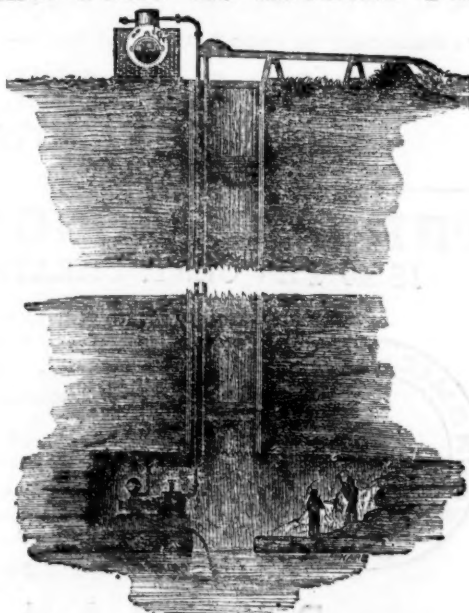
## IRONWORKS AND ROLLING MILLS:—

Bede Metal Company, Jarrow ...	11 Pumps.	Gilkes, Wilson, Pease, and Co., Middlesboro' ...	2 Pumps.	Whitwell and Co., Stockton ...	3 Pumps.
Bagnall, C. and T., Grosmont Ironworks ...	2 "	Lloyd and Co., Middlesborough ...	1 "	Whessoe Ironworks, Darlington ...	1 "
Consett Ironworks ...	2 "	Solway Hematite Iron Company, Maryport ...	1 "	West Cumberland Hematite Iron Company ...	1 "
Castleford Foundry Company, Normanton ...	1 "	Vaughan, Thomas, Middlesborough ...	2 "	Westbury Iron Company ...	1 "
Ellen Rolling Mills, Maryport ...	1 "	The Shotts Iron Company, Edinburgh ...	1 "		

## THE "SPECIAL" STEAM PUMP AS APPLIED FOR DRAINING MINES.

The arrangement in the accompanying illustration shows an economical method of draining mines without the expense of erecting surface-engines, fixing pump-rods, or other gearing. A boiler adjacent to the pit's mouth is all that is necessary on the surface; from thence steam may readily be taken down, by means of a felted steam-pipe, to connect the pump with the boiler. The pump may be placed in any situation that may be convenient for working it, and connecting the steam, suction, and delivery pipes.

These engines can be fixed and set to work in a



comparatively short time, and also at a very small outlay. They are used in large mines as auxiliary engines, and will be found invaluable adjuncts in all mining operations.

To estimate the quantity of water to be raised by any given size of pump refer to the tabulated list below. It is recommended to use long-stroke pumps where the height exceeds 100 ft., so that the largest result may be obtained with a minimum wear and tear of the pump pistons and valves. The pumps are provided with doors for ready access to all working parts.

## PRICES OF THE "SPECIAL" STEAM PUMPS.

Diameter of Steam Cylinder .....	2½	3	4	4	6	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	8	8	10	10	12	12	14	16	26
Diameter of Water Cylinder .....	1½	1½	2	4	3	4	6	5	6	7	4	6	7	8	6	7	8	10	8	7	6½
Length of Stroke .....	6	9	9	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	18	12	12	18	24	48	24	73
Strokes per minute .....	100	100	70	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	35	50	50	35	—	—	—	—
Gallons per hour .....	310	680	815	2250	1830	3250	7330	5070	7330	9750	3250	7330	9750	13,000	7330	9750	13,000	—	—	—	—
PRICE .....	£10	£15	£20	£35	£30	£40	£47 10	£50	£52 10	£57 10	£50	£55	£65	£85	£70	£80	£100	—	—	—	—

IF BRASS LINED, OR SOLID BRASS OR GUN-METAL WATER CYLINDERS, WITH COPPER AIR VESSELS, EXTRA, ACCORDING TO SIZE.

Any Combination can be made between the Steam and Water Cylinders, provided the Lengths of Stroke are the same, thus—8 in. Steam and 3 in. Water, or 10 in. Steam and 3 in. Water, adapted to height of lift and pressure of steam, and so on.

**TANGYE BROTHERS & HOLMAN, 10, Laurence Pountney-lane, London, E.C.**